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ABSTRACT

Papers on library history presented at the 1985 International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA) conference include: (1) "The Historical Role of Libraries in Scholarly Communication" (Pamela Spence Richards, Rutgers University, United States); (2) "Current Bibliographies for Library History: An International Review and a Feasibility Study" (Peter A. Hoare, Nottingham University Library, United Kingdom); and (3) "An International Directory of Experts in Library History" (Michel Albaric, Bibliotheque du Saulchoir, France). This last document is a questionnaire which has been sent to member associations of IFLA, professional institutions, and prominent professionals in the field, in order to locate appropriate experts who should be listed in a directory to be compiled by the Round Table on Library History. (THC)

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The Historical Role of Libraries in Scholarly Communication

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Pamela Spence Richards

The Historical Role of Libraries in Scholarly Communication

While the idea of the library as a center of scholarship is ancient and widespread, modern sociologists and historians of science have recently emphasized how much of scholarly communication goes on outside of libraries: Harriet Zuckerman (USA) has demonstrated the importance of the teacher, and of the network of colleagues, in the passing on of scholarly standards.[1] Diana Crane (USA) has shown how modest a role in the diffusion process is played by libraries, which are less influential and far less immediate than teachers, networks of colleagues, manuscript circulation, conferences and preprint circulation.[2] It can be as much as several years after an idea's original conceptualization that an article presenting the idea is actually published in a journal, thus making the idea accessible in a library.

In this paper I will try to show that all of these non-print method of scholarly information transfer, although unquestionably vital and preliminary to diffusion through books and journals, are, in their international functioning, extremely vulnerable and can suffer critical curtailment in times of war. This study will focus particularly on the period of the Second World War, when, as a result of the almost total breakdown of the various interpersonal methods of scientific and scholarly exchange between the Axis and Allied countries, scholars were forced to rely on printed material in libraries. So clear did this dependency become to governments on both sides of the conflict that when the international booktrade itself began to falter, official emergency information-gathering networks were instituted. We will see that in both Germany and the United States this process raised the consciousness of the central authorities to the strategic importance

of libraries and had an effect on post-war developments in library planning.

The Increase in International Scholarly Communication in the Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Centuries

Before we demonstrate the breakdown in interpersonal international scientific and scholarly relations occasioned by the outbreak o the Second World War, it is useful to look at developments in this area since the nineteenth century revolution in communications. It is probably unnecessary to review for this audience developments in the book trade such as steam printing (1814) and the introduction of wood pulp paper (1843),which made books so much more numerous and inexpensive but it is useful to point out that the same technological progress that brought improvements in the book trade also brought about increased interpersonal scholarly communication. Steam harnessed to ships -- and to canal-building machinery -- meant that large numbers of men and women of different cultures could actually meet and converse regularly. In the nineteenth century we see for the first time a situation where international voyages by scholars and scientists became fairly usual. The London Exhibition of 1851 is perhaps the best known early symbol of the new personal form of international technical and scientific exchange, but James Morris has shown in his magnificent trilogy on the British Empire[3] what an important conduit the imperial system could be for the international movement of scholars, both from and to Europe.

Colonial networks were of course not the only frameworks within which nineteenth-century scholars circulated internationally,even if the were perhaps the most colorful. Of enormous importance to the development of American universities and their libraries was the trend, begun early in the century by members of Boston's upper class, of young Americans going to German universities to study.[4] By the 1870s, enough American graduates of Göttingen and Berlin had returned to their

homeland to demand and implement, with the founding of Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore in 1876, the establishment in the United States of a research university on the German model. To this day American higher education owes more to German than English precedent:

The early twentieth century saw increased interpersonal international scholarly contacts as speedier sea and,eventually, air travel was introduced. "Internationalism", here meaning the advocacy of the universality of scholarship,became during the first three decades of the century a favorite tenet of many Western intellectuals, including the American library pioneer Melvil Dewey. This internationalism, so profoundly disappointed by the carnage of the First World War, was the spirit behind the founding of various private and government-funded institutions which were to play an important role in encouraging interpersonal international scholarly communication in the 1920s;these included the League of Nation's Committee of Intellectual Cooperation (1922) and, in the United States, the charities of financier Andrew Carnegie, especially the Carnegie Corporation.

All during this period, national library resources for scholars grew in size and complexity, profiting from technological improvements in the book trade and international communications to broaden their international periodical and monograph collections. What is of interest to us here is that in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, while many leading scholars and scientists were becoming more international in their orientation and activity, research libraries were acquiring the role of symbols of national greatness, even as their collections became more international. New national library buildings opened during thie period-- the U.S. Library of Congress (1897) and the Prussian Royal Library (1914) had more than just scholarly dignity: they had become symbols of national cultural grandeur. Perhaps the

most dramatic example of the symbolic national value of a great library is offered by the checkered career of the municipal library of Strassburg, destroyed by the Germans in 1870, reconstructed by them into a great German state library between 1871 and 1914, and, after World War I, vaunted proudly by the French as their second greatest library.

The Impact of World War II

What, then, was the impact on these two parallel scholarly communication systems -- print and interpersonal -- of the six-year severance of relations between the Allied and Axis nations brought about by World War II, and why was the impact different from that of the First World War? First, it should be pointed out that organized interpersonal international communication had increased enormously between 1918 and 1939 due to developments in radio, air mail and air travel, so that their curtailment in 1939 would be more radically felt than in 1914. Just in our own field, for example, we see IFLA being founded in 1929 and the International Federation of Documentation (FID, before 1931 the International Institute of Bibliography) becomin a truly international organization only in the late 1920s. Perhaps the period's high point of interpersonal cross-cultural information transfer in librarianship came at the 1937 International Federation of Documentation meeting held in conjunction with that year's Paris Exposition: large delegations from all the developed countries and some emerging nations were on hand to hear Germany's Andreas Krüss extend the invitation to the FID to hold its 1940 meeting in Mainz, Germany, in connection with that year's planned Gutenberg Jubilaeum.[5] That meeting was, of course, never held. Furthermore, the invasion of the Low Countries and France in 1941 saw the occupation of the headquarters of both of our profession's international organizations, which suspended operations for the duration of the war.

Conferences were not, of course, the only type of interpersonal international scholarly communications that saw increased activity after World War I: During this period many European and American professional and scholarly organizations sponsored foreign study, even during the Depression; in our field the Carnegie Corporation sent a number of women to American library schools, from which they returned to accelerate development in such countries as France, Australia and New Zealand. The Carnegie Corporation was also important as a sponsor of international consultancies: it underwrote the investigative trips of American and British librarians to South Africa (1928) and Australia and New Zealand (1934); in each case the published reports which followed these visits led to the beginnings of modern librarianship in those countries.[6]

One ancient means of scholarly communication, the migration of intellectuals, experienced a tragic revival in the 1930s: Racial laws passed in Germany in April 1933 to purge the German civil service of Jews and dissidents resulted in the loss to Germany of some of its most eminent professors. Ultimately twenty Nobel laureates were forced to resign, all but one of whom left the country.[7] The most famous refugee was unquestionably Albert Einstein, but the host countries (mainly England, Switzerland and the United States) received stars from many disciplines: Erwin Panofsky and his compatriots made New York University's Institute of Fine Arts a world center for art history from the late 1930s, and the Warburgs' famous library, relocated from Hamburg, gave London an important cultural history resource. The scholarly communication dynamic begun by this "cultural migration: is still part of the host countries' intellectual life, for scores of these scholarly emigrants, many of the Nobel Prize winners, went on to teach hundreds of students, some of whom in turn became themselves Laureates and are now teaching a new generation.

Thus, interpersonal international scholarly activity was at unprecedented heights before the outbreak of World War II. What, then, was the situation with scholarly print communication? Here international interdependence had been greatly increased after 1918. Before tl first World War, Germany had dominated scientific publishing, with its great reviews such as Chemisches Zentralblatt unrivaled. But the American Chemical Abstracts, founded in 1907, and Biological Abstracts (1926) soon had large European audiences. Even the German National Socialist government, whose public position was that foreign research was irrelevant to German science, was forced soon afters its assumption of power to acknowledge the internationality of sicnece: When, after 1936, all library orders of foreign materials had to be routed through the Gestapo for clearance, the Gestapo consistently granted the foreign credits necessary for the purchase of foreign scientific and technical journals to its specialized research libraries, lest otherwise Germany's defense industries fall behind;[8] further, an elaborate information center was set up at the library of the Technological University at Berlin-Charlottenburg to translate, abstract, index and disseminate the contents of foreign journals. In American and England , all collections, not just those in applied and pure science, became increasingly international: by 1939 the United States was paying $1.5 million annually for foreign literature, of which by far the largest part came from Germany.[9]

Upon the outbreak of the war, termination of interpersonal scholarl communication between the belligerents was swift and inevitable, but both sides of the conflict responded imaginatively to the threat, and then the realization, of a collapsed international scholarly book trade. The neutral countries of Portugal, Sweden and Turkey became the locations of camouflaged addresses to which subscriptions of German, Dutch, American, English and French scientific and technical periodicals were sent, and a small industry of clandestine photographers grew up

in Lisbon, Stockholm and Istanbul to serve the rival intelligence services. From these points, single copies or microfilms of the enemy's journals were flown to New York or Berlin (Lufthansa maintained weekly flights from Lisbon and daily flights from Spain into 1945), where they were further disseminated domestically.[10]

The Germans used the existing information center at the Technological University at Berlin-Charlottenburg, together with that of the World Economics Institute at Hamburg, as their main dissemination points. In collaboration, the two centers published from 1942 to November 1944 a monthly review journal containing around 3,000 abstracts, in translation, or European, American and British scientific technical journal articles. The selected libraries receiving the articles could order the originals from Berlin-Charlottenburg. To further expedite the processing of printed foreign scientific and technical information, the German government in 1941 founded the German Society for Documentation; in 1943 the Society published an inventory of all foreign materials to have entered Germany since September 1939. Despite the total destruction by bombing of the Technological University at Berlin-Charlottenburg in 1943, and the fire-bombing of Hamburg, the review of foreign journals continued to be published until late 1944. Some of this material was of surprising strategic value;Notes released in the March and April 1940 issues of Physical Review revealed that experimental proof had been found that slow neutrons had a greater probability of fissioning enriched uranium; and in the June 1940 number of the same journal, just before all such research was classified, the discovery of plutonium was announced. Thus German scientists learned of physical investigations which they did not have the means to obtain themselves.[11]

The American government was slower than the Reich to construct an emergency supply network for foreign scientific publications. During the two years of US neutrality, it was left to America's library associations to cope with the breakdown of regular channels, and a Committee on Importations was established in 1939 to coordinate shipments from the diminishing number of neutral ports. After America's entrance into the war, restrictions on currency dealings with the enemy made this arrangement impossible, and importation of books and journals was taken over the by the American intelligence branch, the Office of Strategic Services(OSS). In 1942 the OSS set up an Interdepartmental Committee for the Acquisition of Foreign Publications, whose task it was to arrange for the clandestine acquisition abroad of single copies of key scientific and technical journals published in Germany or the occupied countries. The list of desired journals was composed by an advisory committee of prominent librarians.The copies were flown from Sweden and Portugal to London and thence to the US, where, under a special arrangement with the Department of Justice's Alien Property Custodian, they were reprinted and distributed to public, academic and industrial research libraries and government agencies. A few of these articles were of critical importance: in 1943 the Republication Program had reprinted eleven papers on atomic experiments published in 1942 and 1943 issues of Zeitschrift für Physik and Die Naturwissenschaften after the Germans had decided that the bomb was not practical for immediate development. It was these articles, written by Otto Hahn and his associates, to which E.J. Crane, wartime editor of Chemical Abstracts, referred when he told those responsible for the reprinting that"your republication program was one of the factors which made the atomic bomb possible."[12]

The amount of exchange of printed technical and scientific information among the allies was quite varied: German-Japanese and German-Italian scientific collaboration never really developed, largely because of German convictions that their allies were not their technological peers. Anglo-American cooperation, on the other hand, was active after a 1941 treaty in which the two countries agreed to share technical and scientific information: British advances in radar were shared with the American air force, and American reprints of German articles were regularly distributed to British libraries. Not only did this cooperation obtain in most defense-related research, but also in the area of civilian information needs: Between 1942 and 1945 the US Office of War Information operated libraries in the British Commonwealth as well as neutral countries for the free use of the local citizenry. The libraries, which later became the core of the US Information Service,contained current American publications on whatever industries were locally important. For some people in some of the cities served, these publications represented the only current technical information available.[13]

The Russians occupied an interesting position in the Allied print information exchange network: In 1942,in an effort to compensate somewhat for their failure to open a second front that year, the British concluded a treaty with the Russians whereby the British would share with them information about their war inventions. The British need to sustain the Russian front was so great that a plan was drawn up by which the great physicist and radar expert Henry Tizzard would operate a permanent scientific liaison office in Moscow. The Germans were at this time deep in Russian territory, and the prospect of the loss to Germany by the Russians of Allied military secrets so terrified the Americans that they began to hold scientific information back from the British, lest it fall

into Russian, and thence into German, hands. By 1944, however, with Germany almost defeated and three more years predicted for the war in the Pacific, American desire to defeat Japan prompted a reversal of her policy towards Russia, and American technical information began to flow more freely. But, despite an ultimately large influx of British and American printed and processed technical manuals and reports into the Soviet Union, and even some travel by Soviet officials to sites in Britain, the verdict of historians seems to be that scientific and technical communication between Russia and her Western allies was not adequate enough to make a real difference to her, largely because of the constant disagreement between Britain and America as to how much information to share.[14] Certainly there are no records to indicate that German articles seized and reprinted by the United States made their way to the USSR as they did to Britain.

But for Germany and the United States, the perception of the value of foreign scientific information to each country's war effort was critical to post-war planning for technical information dissemination. In a period when interpersonal international scholarly communication was severely limited, the importance of the print medium had been high-lighted. Both in America and Germany, centralized government agencies used existing research libraries as the depositories and dissemination points for foreign pullications. The United States even founded a new chain of libraries overseas to serve as conduits for civilian technical expertise. We will see that after the war, both countries took steps to institutionalize heightened awareness of the strategic importance of libraries.

In America, use of libraries for war-related research had made the inadequacies of foreign holdings painfully obvious. 1948 saw the formulation of the Farmington Plan, a division of foreign acquisitions

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responsibilities among the nation's research libraries to ensure that in the future the United States would own at least one copy of each important foreign title. The government stayed in the foreign information acquisition business after the war as well. The Office of Technical Services (later the National Technical Information Service) was founded in 1946 to translate and process captured German documents, and in 1952 Public Law 480 was passed, permitting the use of surplus foreign currency to be used overseas for the purchase of local publications. The US government also stayed in the business of disseminating technical information abroad: the Office of War Information Libraries ultimately became part of the United States Information Agency, founded in 1953.

Post-war developments in Germany were complicated by political divisions. Philosophically opposed to cultural centralization, the West Germans further developed some of the features of the pre-National Socialist period, such as a cooperative acquisitions program and an interlibrary loan system. Despite the federated structure, certain national information institutions have evolved. Significantly, the first of these to be founded was the central Technical Information Library at Hanover (1959). In East Germany, where central planning was at the heart of the new socialist state, the foundations for centralized processing of foreign information date almost to the beginning of the Democratic Republic itself. In 1950 the Center for Scientific Information was founded in Berlin and performed essentially the same abstracting and disseminating tasks as had the old Technological University at Charlottenburg. In 1955 these functions were taken over by the Institute for Documentation attached to the German Academy of Sciences. An indication of the importance attached to the Documentation Institute's function was its transfer in 1964 to the jurisdiction of the State Secretary for

for Research and Technology.[15]

Interestingly, Russia, the country which, of the three studied, derived least advantage from foreign information sources in wartime, was the one to put least emphasis on their acquisition and domestic dissemination in the period right after the war. In fact, the immediate post-war years saw a real cutback on foreign literature coming into the USSR: In 1950 the Academy of Sciences received fewer foreign publications than it had in 1940, and four times fewer than it had in 1936.[16]

The conflict that ended forty years ago this month, was, with its terrible final explosion, a watershed in human history. Its division of the scientific world was so disruptive to research that scientists went to extraordinary measures to bridge their isolation, even when such bridges were ideologically unacceptable to their political leaders. Books are easier to smuggle than people; hence, to the end of the war fairly regular print communication was maintained between Germany and the Western allies. The public perception of the value of that communication is still evident forty years later in the status given to these nations' various library systems, which evolved in the course of the war from symbols of national grandeur to national defense priorities.

1 Harriet Zuckerman, Scientific Elite: Nobel Laureates in the United States (New York: Free Press, 1977).

2 Diana Crane, Invisible Colleges: The Diffusion of Knowledge in Scientific Communities (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972).

[3] James Morris, Pax Britannica (New York: Harcourt Brace and World, 1968); Heaven's Command (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1973); Farewell the Trumpets (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1978).

[4] David B. Tyack, George Ticknor and the Boston Brahmins (Cambirdge: Harvard University Press, 1967).

[5] Dokumentation und Arbeitstechnik (May 1939), p. 1.

[6] Pamela Spence Richards, "Information for the Allies: Office of War Information Libraries in Australia, New Zealand and South Africa", Library Quarterly 52(October 1982):325-347.

[7] Alan D. Beyerchen, Scientists under Hitler (New Haven:Yale University Press, 1977), p. 47.

[8] Pamela Spence Richards, "German Libraries and Scientific and Technical Information in Nazi Germany," Library Quarterly 55 (April 1985): forthcoming.

[9] U.S Office of Alien Property Custodian, "Report to the President on the Periodical Republication Program," mimeographed, Washington, DC, 1945.

[10] Richards, "German Libraries..."

[11] Richards, "German Libraries..."

[12] Pamela Spence Richards, "Gathering Enemy Scientific Information in Wartime", Journal of Library History 16(Spring 1981): 262.

[13] Richards, "Information for the Allies...",p.339.

14 E. H. Beardsley, "Secrets Between Friends: Applied Science Exchange Between the Western Allies and the Soviet Union during World War II", Social Studies of Science 7(1977):468.

15 Achim Beyer, "Information und Dokumentationswesen", in Wissenschaft in der DDR (Erlangen: Institut für Gesellschaft und Wissenschaft, 1973), p.206.

16 Bruce Parrott, Politics and Technology in the Soviet Union (Cambridge, MIT Press, 1983), p. 111.

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Current bibliographies for library history : an international review and a feasibility study.

by

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K E Y W O R D (S):

Library History
(or History of Libraries and Librarianship)
Bibliographies

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The theme of the 1985 IFLA conference is 'Libraries and the Universal Availability of Information'. It is therefore important to consider how well information about the history of libraries and librarianship is made available. There are some special problems. Professor Bottle has recently pointed out the difficulty of 'delineating the boundaries' of librarianship and information work[1], but it is even more difficult to set limits to writing on library history, which extends far beyond the boundaries of 'professional' literature on librarianship. The history of libraries is a significant element in general historical writing and in the history of other cultural manifestations such as science, religion, education or medicine. It has close links with the history of book-production but that may not be its most important connection. International relationships are very important at certain periods, and all historical studies are affected by changes in national or cultural boundaries. Where the history of libraries is poorly documented, publications may offer valuable evidence even if they are not scholarly. All these problems must be remembered when the state of current bibliography is examined.

Because of the large number of bibliographies which are at least partly relevant to library history, and which overlap but are not equally up to date, a purely statistical comparison is not very helpful. The following notes on the principal current bibliographies covering the history of libraries are therefore generally descriptive, with comments on their usefulness. Among points considered are these:-

Scope. Does coverage include, for example, both book collecting (or bibliophily) and technical developments in librarianship? Are there geographical or period limitations?

Arrangement. Is the order of entries helpful and are indexes adequate? How is library history related to other subjects?

Responsibility. Is a national or international body associated with the bibliography? How is it compiled?

A. BIBLIOGRAPHIES RESTRICTED TO LIBRARY HISTORY

1. British library history : bibliography. Edited by Denis F. Keeling for the Library History Group. Volumes for 1962-68; 1969-72; 1973-76; 1977-80; continuing. (London: Library Association, 1972-)

Scope: British Isles; all periods; all aspects of libraries and librarianship. Excludes items not in English, Welsh or Irish. Includes books, periodical articles, dissertations; some reviews; obituaries; and brief references to libraries within more general books. No list of periodicals indexed. 700-800 items per 4-year volume.

Arrangement: Classified, by topic, type of library and place; outline of scheme in each volume (expanded version in Vodosek[2]). Many cross-references. Indexes: author and subject/place. Most entries have annotations or abstracts.

Responsibility: Compiled by members of the Library History Group with strong editorial contribution.

Comments: Comprehensive coverage; does not include fringe subjects except reading. Subject access generally very good. Annotations of great value.

2. The literature of American library history. Compiled by Wayne A. Wiegand. Surveys for 1977-1978; 1979-80; 1980-81; continuing. (In Journal of Library History, 1979-)

Scope: USA; all periods; all aspects of libraries and librarianship. Includes books and periodical articles; list of principal periodicals. c. 150 items per 2-year survey.

Arrangement: Narrative, in broad sections for types of library and topics. No index.

Responsibility: Individual, with critical and evaluative comments. Continues earlier surveys in JLH by Michael H. Harris and Donald G. Davis and their retrospective bibliography[3].

Comments: Contains most important publications; written in easily-readable form. Not suitable for detailed subject search.

3. Notes on recent publications. compiled by Peter Hoare. Continuous since 1967. (In Library History, 1967 -).

Scope: Europe, especially British Isles and Western Europe; some material from other continents except America; all periods; all aspects. Includes books and periodical articles. c. 100 items per year.

Arrangement: Narrative; sections for each country, then chronological. No separate index, but items included in 3-yearly index to Library History.

Responsibility: Individual; personal selection.

Comments: Uneven coverage, not systematically prepared; of some value as a wide-ranging current survey, of limited use for subject searching.

B. BIBLIOGRAPHIES OF BOOK-HISTORY, INCLUDING LIBRARY HISTORY

1. ABHB : annual bibliography of the history of the printed book and of libraries. Edited by Hendrik D.L. Vervliet. Volumes 1-13, for 1970-1982; continuing. (The Hague: Nijhoff, 1973-)

Scope: All countries; from the introduction of printing (not manuscript era); all aspects but especially those related to the printed book. Includes books and periodicals, some reviews. Extensive list of periodicals indexed. Library history items c. 700 out of 3200 in 1980 volume.

Arrangement: Classified sections for 'Bibliography' and 'Libraries', with some material under 'Legal, economic, social aspects'. Subdivided by country and period. Many duplicated entries (cross-references). Indexes of authors, personal and geographical names; no index of topics. Some brief annotations.

Responsibility: Under the auspices of the IFLA Committee on Rare and Precious Books and Documents. Compiled by national commitees in 25 countries, with editorial collation and selection, using strict guidelines[4].

Comments: The major international source for library history from the 15th century onwards. Coverage uneven, with some national committees less good on library history, and no systematic coverage of Asia, most of Africa and some other countries. Now much more up to date and improving in coverage, especially for certain countries, e.g. USSR. Lack of detailed subject index makes searching rather difficult except through the broad classification. For a full but not wholly accurate criticism see McCrank[5].

2. Bulletin codicologique. Edited by Pierre Cockshaw and others. Continuous since 1959. (In Scriptorium, 1959-).

Scope: Medieval Europe, including Byzantine Empire; libraries and scriptoria, with emphasis on physical side of manuscripts and catalogues of collections. Includes books and periodicals. 779 items in 2 issues for issues for 1983, about 10% on library history.

Arrangement: Alphabetically by author/title. Indexed by name of library/manuscript. No subject approach except for individual libraries. Extensive abstracts or annotations of many items, in English, French, German or Italian.

Responsibility: Sponsored by the Centre International de Codicologie, under the Belgian Ministries of Culture and National Education. Compiled by volunteers in various countries, who index selected journals with no strict guidelines; editorial collation, little central direction.

Comments: Valuable tool for medieval library history, especially primary sources; abstracts of great importance. Uneven coverage, with poorer representation of some countries e.g. UK and Scandinavia; sometimes

slow in reporting. Lack of any subject approach a real disadvantage.

3. Bibliographie der Buch- und Bibliotheksgeschichte. Compiled by Horst Meyer. Volumes for 1980-81 and 1982; continuing. (Bad Iburg: Verlag Meyer, 1982-)

Scope: German-speaking areas of Europe; all periods; all aspects. Includes books, periodicals and dissertations; separate section of reviews. Extensive list of periodicals indexed. Library history items 993 out of 3614 in 1982 volume.

Arrangement: Classified. Sections for 'Libraries'; 'Bibliophily and private libraries' and 'The reader', subdivided by type of library and place; adequate cross-references. Indexed by author, personal name, place and topic. Some brief annotations.

Responsiblilty: Individual. Methodology refined from work on the former bibliography in Wolfenbütteler Notizen zur Buchgeschichte.

Comment: Comprehensive coverage; well up to date. Good links with fringe subjects in book-history field, less with social history. Absence of detailed annotations sometimes a disadvantage. Subject access generally very good.

4. Kniga: issledovanija i materialy. Sbornik. (Moskva: Izd. "Kniga"). Contains annual survey 'Knigovedenie: ukazatel' literatury' (1980 by L.I. Fursenko, publ. 1983).

Scope: USSR (a little on other countries); all periods; book-production and publishing. Includes books, periodicals and reviews from USSR only. No list of periodicals indexed. Library history items c. 100 out of 1255 in 1980 survey.

Arrangement: Broadly classified. Sections for 'History of reading', 'Book collections of libraries', 'The Manuscript book' and 'Bibliophily'. No indexes.

Responsibility: Under the auspices of the All-Union Book Chamber.

Comments: Coverage of library history not a primary aim, so relevant material is infrequent. Most useful section is on manuscripts, not covered by ABHB or Scriptorium. Subject access difficult.

C. BIBLIOGRAPHIES OF LIBRARIANSHIP AND INFORMATION WORK

1. Library and Information Science Abstracts (London: Library Association). 6 issues per year.

Scope: World-wide; all periods; all aspects of professional librarianship, not much on book-collecting etc. Includes periodicals, dissertations, some books and audio-visual material, but only 'professional' publications. Extensive list of periodicals indexed. c.130 items indexed in 1983 under 'History', actual number of relevant items much greater.

Arrangement: Closely classified (CRG scheme). Sections for 'Biographies' and for types of library or processes. Full abstracts for all items; foreign titles translated. Index of authors; chain index of subjects, both cumulated annually, includes 'History of ...'

Responsibility: Library Association, using also British Library resources.

Comments: Up to date. Very wide coverage, especially useful for Africa and Asia which are not well covered elsewhere. Abstracts helpful. Subject access good for specific topics, much less good for library history in general, particularly for biographies and individual libraries, where the index does not bring out historical aspects.

2. Library Literature (New York: H.W. Wilson Co.) 6 issues per year, annual cumulation.

Scope: World-wide but especially America; all periods; all

aspects. Includes books, periodicals, dissertations and audio-visual material; separate section of reviews. List of periodicals regularly indexed. Total number of relevant items not ascertained.

Arrangement: Alphabetical by author, book title and subject, in one sequence (dictionary catalogue). Headings 'Libraries' and 'Libraries and Librarianship' have most historical entries and refer to subheading 'History' under c. 20 other headings (types of library, processes etc.) Many duplicated entries (cross-references).

Responsibility: Editorial compilation; uses also relevant material from other Wilson indexes.

Comment: Up to date. Very good coverage for North America and quite good for Western Europe; less good for Africa, Asia and USSR. Arrangement helpful but rather laborious to check through. Subject access generally good.

3. Informationsdienst Bibliothekswesen

(Leipzig: Deutsche Bücherei.) 6 issues per year.

Scope: International, mostly Europe; all periods; all aspects. Includes books and periodicals. List of periodicals indexed, especially from Germany and Eastern Europe; some reviews. c. 100 items indexed under 'Library History' in 1983, out of 2600 in all; actual number rather higher.

Arrangement: Closely classified (UDC), few cross-references. Author index in each issue; annual alphabetical subject index.

Responsibility: Deutsche Büche ei. Known to use other bibliographies as secondary sources. Full abstracts for most items; foreign titles translated.

Comments: Useful source for Eastern Europe and USSR; reasonably up to date. Subject access fairly good, but less good for finding historical studies of individual libraries.

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4. Three other abstracting services contain little on library history but may reveal occasional articles of interest. In comparison with those listed above they are of minor importance.

Bulletin signalétique, section 101: Sciences de l'information, Documentation. (CNRS)
Indian Library Science Abstracts (IASLIC)
Informatics Abstracts = Referativnyj Žurnal sect. 59: Informatika, English version (VINITI)

D. OTHER BIBLIOGRAPHIES

A selection of current bibliographies of general history or of special topics, some of which are important as sources of library history.

1. L'Année Philologique: bibliographie critique et analytique de l'antiquité gréco-latine.

Annual bibliography of classical studies. Section III, History of texts, includes Palaeography and has several annotated references to manuscripts and libraries, from medieval as well as classical times. A useful souce but lacks a general subject index.

2. Arts and Humanities Citation Index

Up-to-date computer-produced index to a very wide range of periodicals; potentially valuable but not easy to use in tracing library history since index is basically keyword. (Access may be better when on-line searching is available in 1985.) About 80 items in 1983 under 'Library' or related headings. Coverage of Africa and Asia poor.

3. Bibliographie annuelle de l'histoire de France.

Excellent example of national historical bibliography, well up to date. Section on 'Libraries' has 66 items in 1983 volume; sections for monastic, private and other libraries and for biographies; good cross-references. Such national

listings are much more useful for library history than general historical bibliographies such as Historical Abstracts or the International Bibliography of Historical Sciences, which contain little not found elsewhere.

4. Bibliographie d'humanisme et de Renaissance.

Detailed annual index on 14-16th century civilisation in Europe. Section III: education, literature, libraries and printing (76 pages in 1979 volume), organised by country; also has references to sections on individuals. Good coverage but subject access difficult.

5. International Medieval Bibliography.

Twice-yearly index, good for analytical entries for collected volumes. Covers Europe and Byzantine Empire. Principal heading: 'Manuscripts' (407 items in 1980), which includes libraries subdivided by country. Good subject access.

6. MLA International Bibliography (Modern Language Association of America).

Up-to-date annual bibliography of high quality; volume 4, 'General literature and related topics', includes sections 'Bibliographical' and 'Manuscripts' which contain useful library history references, some not found elsewhere; principally Western Europe and America.

7. Revue d'histoire ecclésiastique.

Each quarterly issue includes a large bibliographical section on the history of the Western Church. Two sections are good sources of library history articles: sections 2a 'Inventories and catalogues' and E, 'History of science and letters' subheadings 'Archives and libraries'. A useful bibliography for religious libraries, notably for Belgium, the Netherlands and Spain, especially up to the 18th century; some non-ecclesiastical libraries are included.

From this survey it is seen that library historu is coverd unevenly. The best coverage is in the national indexes, but the major international list, ABHB, is also good for those countries which have the most active committees. However, it omits early libraries entirely, and there is no single bibliography which covers them fully. The wide range of historical publications is a problem, and it is unfortunate that few bibliographies are consistent in their treatment of what is indexed. (The indexing of bibliography hs been well examined by Tanselle[6], McMullin[7], and Koppitz[8].) The bibliographies of general library literature, such as LISA and Library Literature, include much relevant material but by no means all; and as Marco[9] shows there is even for the professional literature is covered very unevenly. A special difficulty is coverage of African and Asian publications, which has been studied by Buckley[10] and Moore[11], and of Latin America[12]. The history of libraries in developing countries will become more important and will be more written about in years to come, but it is very poorly covered by the current bibliographies of library history.

POSSIBLE IMPROVEMENTS: a feasibility study.

In assessing the feasibility of a new collaboration to produce a more comprehensive bibliography of library history on a world-wide scale, certain fundamental questions must be asked.

1. Should the bibliography be concerned only with the history of libraries and librarianship, or be part of a larger work including either the history of the book (as in ABHB) or more general history (cultural, social, administrative)? Is ther a market for a bibliography of library history alone?

2. Should such a bibliography aim to be fully comprehensive, or should it select the most significant items, leaving full coverage to national publications? (Are such national bibliographies likely to be viable for many countries?) There is a danger that an international bibliography will be simply incomplete rather than selective.

3. What collaboration can be expected from the compilers of existing bibliographies? Can data be used for several bibliographies, and what costs might arise?

These questions must be asked but cannot be answered positively without much discussion. Because of the wide implications of library history, it is desirable to call together those most concerned, not only librarians but also those involved in manuscript studies, historians, literary scholars etc. IFLA might well take the initiative in calling such a meeting, but other international bodies in the field of cultural history should be brought in, particularly those able to provide funds. There may be a role for UNESCO.

The position of the existing bibliographies is crucial. ABHB has a strong central position and already has an important network of reporting committees, even though this can be improved and widened. It is not likely that its contributors would be willing to make their data available for a second publication, but there is no point in duplicating ABHB's network. Since ABHB exists, it seems best to seek ways of building on its strengths, and Dr. Vervliet has indicated that he would welcome this, though he would not be able to undertake such an expansion himself.

Both ABHB and Dr. Meyer's BBB treat library history as one part of the history of the book, and they would be reluctant to see it separated. My own view is that it can stand alone, though its connections with the history of book-production are strong; but it is probably economically better to produce a bibliography with a wider appeal rather than one aimed at a narrower audience. It is however important for the library-history section of ABHB to expanded; it should cover both the history of libraries before the introduction of printing (the prehistoric, classical and medieval periods) and the social context of libraries in a broader sense than at present. To help in the recording of published evidence, ABHB's strict rules on 'historical perspective' and on scholarly value might be relaxed a little for library history. Most important, the arrangement of entries and the subject index need to be revised, to improve subject access by topic. The present arrangement of ABHB makes it difficult to do certain types of search in the book-history field (e.g. to survey all publications on vellum bindings). For library history such subject searches, by topic rather than by place, are of much greater significance, and a more detailed access structure is essential. All this would have the effect of increasing the size of ABHB considerably, even

without adding new countries to its coverage, and cheaper methods of production would need to be dxamined.

From the review of existing bibliographies it is clear that compilation by national 'teams' is necessary (though sometimes one person can cover a country). Teams like those used by ABHB and the Bulletin codicologique need to be extended and expanded to ensure that library historians are well represented, and that all countries are covered. These teams should search the literature of their countries, including thorough investigation of non-library periodicals. (It might be desirable to pay contributors for items listed; the Bulletin codicologique pays $1.00 for each abstract, using Belgian government funds.) The value of annotations has been noted in the review above, and for an international bibliography they are essential. To make entries widely accessible, translations of titles into one of a small number of common languages is very desirable (as in LISA and in Informationsdienst), and annotations need to be in the same language. Non-Roman alphabets present a problem, and Romanisation may be a 'necessary evil' for reasons of economics and convenience.

A strong central administration would be necessary in order to organise these teams to collect and edit their work, and perhaps to arrange for translations. This centre would have a coordinating role and would also impose the standards agreed by the participants. (The centre would need to have a small permanent secretariat and would therefore require funds. It is unlikely that these could be wholly earned from publication of the resulting bibliography.) Handling the data supplied by the teams would best be done using a computer, but it is not likely that it would be economical to mount a commercial on-line data-base. Compatibility of data-processing equipment could be sought, to enable teams to gather data and report it to the centre in machine-readable form. An existing on-line network might be used for such information transfer, at least for some countries.

The centre should not have simply a passive role. It should regularly check international and 'fringe' bibliographies and other possible sources and should send out items to the national teams for checking and evaluation. Some data could be made available to compilers of

other bibliographies, perhaps to generate income.

These proposals are ambitious. To be fully realised they would involve specialists from many countries and many disciplines. Funds would be needed, for contributors' expenses and for central administration and data processing. Without the help of international agencies and learned societies, enhancement of ABHB on this scale would be impossible; but a beginning could be made more easily. The question must finally be asked: Has library history enough importance to justify such expense? I believe that it has, and that we must persuade the world of its importance. To do so, we must convince our colleagues in many fields. We may have to grow beyond IFLA's boundaries, if that is the best way to ensure the Universal Availability of Information on library history; but IFLA is likely to be the indispensable foundation.

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Section:
Round Table: Library History

6-LIBHI-3-E

AN INTERNATIONAL DIRECTORY OF EXPERTS IN LIBRARY HISTORY

by

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Librarian of the Saulchoir
Paris - france

KEYWORD(S):

Library history,
Directory of experts

For internal use only:

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Remarks:

to be presented orally ☒

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AN INTERNATIONAL DIRECTORY OF EXPERTS IN LIBRARY HISTORY

In order to assist experts in library history the Round Table on Library History of IFLA considers it useful to provide them with an international directory of important names and addresses.

This tool should be designed as follows:
After the Preface and the Guidelines for using the directory, the entries are arranged as follows:

- countries in alphabetical order,
- within each country the names of experts in alphabetical order,
- general index of the experts in alphabetical order,
- alphabetical index of institutions concerned with library history.

A subject index would be highly useful. It should be multilingual and provide access via geographical, chronological, institutional and further search terms. Such terms should make possible the internationalized indexing of important works on library history. The Round Table is making every effort to promote this type of indexing.

As a first step in this procedure we are sending the enclosed questionnaire and this letter to the member associations of IFLA, the professional institutions and prominent professionals in the field.

We ask the member associations to publish this request for information in their publications so that interested experts can contact us.

We would like to publish the first edition of the directory as soon as possible, with the hope that the ensuing response will contribute to its expansion and comprehensiveness.

Paul KAEGBEIN and Michel ALBARIC
President and Secretary of the Round Table on Library History

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FRANCE

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR COMPILATION OF AN INTERNATIONAL DIRECTORY OF EXPERTS IN LIBRARY HISTORY

Country:

*Name
Mr./Mrs./Miss:

First name:

Professional address:

Title and academic function:

Field of research and teaching:

Lectures and conference proceedings:

Books (monographs):

Articles:

At press:

In preparation:

Please notify us of the names and addresses of additional experts in this field in order to make our directory as complete as possible
We would appreciate it if you would type your answer - use additional sheets if necessary.

*Cross out where not applicable